

1 **Direct and indirect effects of rainfall and vegetation coverage on**
2 **runoff, soil loss, and nutrient loss in a semi-humid climate**

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12 Keywords: Runoff; Soil loss; Soil nutrient loss; Vegetation coverage; Rainfall;
13 Structural equation model;—

14 Abstract: Soil and nutrient loss play a vital role in eutrophication of water bodies. High
15 ~~nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) levels are the main causes of eutrophication of water~~
16 ~~bodies, and the chemical oxygen demand (COD) is one of the indices of relative organic~~
17 ~~matter content.~~—Several simulated rainfall experiments have been conducted to
18 investigate the effects of a single controlling factor on soil and nutrient loss. However,
19 the role of precipitation and vegetation coverage in quantifying soil and nutrient loss is
20 still unclear. We monitored runoff, soil loss, and soil nutrient loss under natural rainfall
21 conditions from 2004 to 2015 for 50-100 m² in runoff plots around Beijing. Soil erosion
22 was significantly reduced when vegetation coverage reached 20 and 60%. At levels

23 below 30%, nutrient loss did not differ among different vegetation cover levels.
24 Minimum soil N and P losses were observed at cover levels above 60%. Irrespective of
25 the management measure, soil nutrient losses were higher at high-intensity rainfall
26 ([Imax30>15 mm/h](#)) events compared to low-intensity events ($p < 0.05$). We applied
27 structural equation modelling (SEM) to systematically analyze the relative effects of
28 rainfall characteristics and environmental factors on runoff, soil loss, and soil nutrient
29 loss. At high-intensity rainfall events, neither vegetation cover nor antecedent soil
30 moisture content (ASMC) affected runoff and soil loss. After log-transformation, soil
31 nutrient loss was significantly linearly correlated with runoff and soil loss ($p < 0.01$).
32 In addition, we identified the direct and indirect relationships among the influencing
33 factors of soil nutrient loss on runoff plots and constructed a structural diagram of these
34 relationships. The factors positively impacting soil nutrient loss were runoff (44-48%),
35 maximum rainfall intensity over a 30-min period (18-29%), rainfall depth (20-27%),
36 and soil loss (10-14%). Studying the effects of rainfall and vegetation coverage factors
37 on runoff, soil loss, and nutrient loss can improve our understanding of the underlying
38 mechanism of slope non-point source pollution.

39 1. Introduction

40 On a global level, soil erosion is a widespread phenomenon and has become a serious
41 environmental problem in various ecosystems (Fu et al., 2011; [Wuepper et al., 2019; Alewell et al.,](#)
42 [2020](#)). Surface runoff and soil loss cause soil nutrient loss, resulting in decreased soil fertility
43 (Adimassu [et al., Mekonnen, Yirga, & Kessler, 2014](#); Shi [et al., Huang, & Wu, 2018](#)) and in the
44 eutrophication of water bodies, which seriously threatens land productivity and water quality (Guo

45 ~~et al., Wang, Li, & Wu, 2010; Napoli et al., Marta, Zanchi, & Orlandini, 2017; Shi et al., 2018).~~
46 Rainfall strongly affects runoff, sediment, and nutrient loss ~~Runoff is the main route of soil loss and~~
47 ~~nutrient transport~~ (Ferreira et al., 2018), and soil nutrients are partially attached to soil particles and
48 partially dissolved in water and lost by runoff (Kato ~~et al., Kuroda, & Nakasone,~~ 2009; Shi et al.,
49 2018). Runoff, soil erosion, and soil nutrient loss are complex processes controlled by various
50 factors (Guo et al., 2010), such as precipitation, soil physical and chemical properties, soil moisture
51 content, vegetation cover, and tillage measures (An et al., 2013; Kurothe et al., 2014; Mutema et al.,
52 2015; Patricio et al., 2016). ~~and different~~ Various models ~~have~~ been constructed to calculate and
53 predict soil nutrient ~~losses~~ (Shi et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2019). ~~Various factors impact soil~~
54 ~~nutrient losses, such as precipitation, soil physical and chemical properties, soil moisture content,~~
55 ~~vegetation cover, and tillage measures~~ (An et al., 2013; Kurothe et al., 2014; Mutema, Chaplot,
56 ~~Jewitt, Chivenge, & Blöschl, 2015).~~

57 Rainfall and runoff are the main factors driving soil nutrient loss (Cantón et al., 2011; Jung et
58 al., 2015), and about 70% of rainfall is converted to runoff in summer chemical fallow ~~are lost in~~
59 ~~the form of runoff~~ (Daniel et al., Phillips, & Northup, 2006; Liu et al., Yang, Hu, Tang, & Zheng,
60 2016); Hydrological changes are generally caused by altered rainfall patterns and have a significant
61 impact on soil nutrient loss. Climate change and different climate patterns are associated with
62 regional variations in extreme rainfall events (Nearing et al., 2004; Ohba and Sugimoto, 2019; Duan
63 et al., 2020). The contribution of extreme rainfall events to runoff and sediment yield is much greater
64 than that of ordinary rainfall events in red soil areas of South China, but land management can
65 effectively reduce slope runoff and sediment yield (Duan et al., 2020). Studies have shown that soil
66 erosion responds linearly to extreme precipitation events (Thothong et al., 2011), soil erosion and

67 soil nutrient loss caused by runoff are significantly correlated with accumulated rainfall and rainfall
68 erosion rate (Jung et al., 2015; Napoli et al., 2017; M. C. Ramos et al., & Martínez-Casasnovas,
69 2006). Based on previous studies, rainfall intensity is an important driving force for soil transport
70 (Qin et al., Khu, & Yu, 2010; Z. Wang et al., Li, & Yang, 2015), and therefore, the consideration
71 of runoff in the general soil loss equation will improve the predictive power of the model (Kinnell,
72 2014). ~~Hydrological changes are generally caused by altered rainfall patterns and have a significant~~
73 ~~impact on soil nutrient loss. Studies have shown that soil erosion responds linearly to extreme~~
74 ~~precipitation events (Thothong et al., 2011).~~

75 The vegetation cover is the main environmental factor affecting runoff and soil erosion (Zhao
76 et al., Mu, Wen, Wang, & Gao, 2013), and the canopy can trap 10-20% of rainfall (Ghimire et al.,
77 Bruijnzeel, Lubezynski, & Bonell, 2012; Kurothe et al., 2014; Rungee et al., 2019; Nazarbakhsh et
78 al., 2020). Previous studies have shown that the runoff with low coverage has the greatest correlation
79 with soil erosion, indicating that with, ~~With~~ the increase in coverage, soil erosion decreases (Gaal
80 et al., Molnar, & Szolgay, 2014; Marques et al., Bienes, Pérez Rodríguez, Processes, & Landforms,
81 2008). Based on long-term hydrological observations, vegetation restoration and afforestation result
82 in a decrease in runoff, thereby reducing sediment yield and soil nutrient loss (Molina et al.,
83 ~~Vanaecker, Balthazar, Mora, & Govers~~, 2012). The root system also has a significant effect on
84 hydrology. On the one hand, the macropores formed by the root system create the conditions for the
85 preferential flow, while on the other hand, aboveground vegetation increases surface roughness and
86 reduces surface scouring by runoff (Kurothe et al., 2014). In addition, vegetation can also improve
87 the soil texture (Fattet et al., 2011).

88 An antecedent soil moisture content is related to vegetation and hydrology, and the soil water

89 status changes with soil nutrient loss via alterations in soil seepage (Fattet et al., 2011). Vegetation
90 can improve soil conditions by adjusting evapotranspiration and soil wetness-hydrology; it also
91 absorbs soil water to reduce soil water storage. A previous study has determined the optimal
92 vegetation coverage by modelling the relationship between soil water consumption and plant growth
93 (Fu et al., W. Fu, Huang, Gallichand, & Shao, 2012).

94 Most studies on the relationship between vegetation and soil erosion were based on indoor
95 simulated rainfall experiments with various degrees of vegetation disturbance, resulting in a certain
96 impact on the results. Rainfall intensity in control experiments is considered as a taxonomic variable,
97 and soil erosion under natural rainfall cannot be adequately characterized. Although the effects of
98 rainfall and environmental factors on runoff and soil loss have been extensively studied, research
99 on the complex interactions between various factors and the quantification of their influence is still
100 scarce (~~Z.~~ Wang et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2016). More advanced methods are needed to determine
101 the direct and indirect relationships between such factors and soil nutrient loss. The structural
102 equation model identifies the direct, indirect, and total effects of the influence of the independent
103 variable on the dependent variable via statistical analysis. It has been used to solve complex
104 environmental problems, while few studies have applied this method to soil nutrient loss (Chamizo
105 et al., Cantón, Rodríguez-Caballero, Domingo, & Eseudero, 2012; Rodríguez-Caballero et al.,
106 Cantón, Chamizo, Lázaro, & Eseudero, 2013; Taka et al., Aalto, Virkanen, & Luoto, 2016). In this
107 sense, we assumed that: (1) There are thresholds for vegetation cover to control soil erosion and
108 nutrient loss; (2) factors such as rainfall and vegetation cover jointly drive soil erosion and nutrient
109 loss. This study takes slope runoff under natural rainfall events as the research object, quantifies the
110 impact of vegetation on runoff sediment and nutrient loss through a large number of monitoring

111 data, and uses the structural equation model to quantitatively analyze the direct and indirect impacts
112 of rainfall and environmental ~~various~~-factors on slope runoff and erosion. Finally, the vegetation
113 coverage threshold interval of soil erosion and nutrient loss was determined to provide a basis for
114 optimizing the decision making in soil erosion and nutrient loss management.

115 2. Materials and Methods

116 2.1 Study site

117 The runoff plots in this study were distributed in various districts of Beijing (115.7°E-117.4°E,
118 39.4°N-41.6°N), with a continental monsoon climate. ~~Figure~~ 1 shows the locations of runoff plots
119 across China. Average annual precipitation is 600 mm, and the rainy season lasts from June to
120 August, accounting for 70% of the annual precipitation. The predominant soil ~~type~~ is Luvisol
121 (USDA soil taxonomy) ~~brown soil, the parent material of loess~~, which is the main soil type in Beijing.
122 We sampled 31 runoff plots with a size of ~~The runoff plots were~~ 10×5 m and 20×5 m and ~~We~~
123 studied the influence of vegetation coverage on runoff, sediment, and nutrient loss. To effectively
124 control variables, we only selected nine runoff plots in Danli, Beijing. All rainfall events were
125 simultaneously measured on all nine plots. The microtopography of these plots was flat, vegetation
126 mainly consisted of a deciduous shrub (*Vitex negundo L. var. heterophylla (Franch.) Rehd.*) and
127 white grass (*Pennisetum centrasiticum Tzvel.*), and vegetation coverage ranged from 5 to 90%.
128 ~~Vegetation coverage ranged from 5 to 90%.~~

129 2.2 Response variables and explanatory variables

130 Data were collected from the Beijing Soil and Water Conservation Station and the China
131 Academy of Water Resources and Hydropower Research. An automatic monitoring system for
132 runoff plots and soil and water conservation was established in Beijing. Runoff from rainfall was

133 collected by runoff buckets and monitored automatically via a water level gauge. When rainfall
134 occurred, intensive water level measurements were taken every 2 min. After each rainfall event, the
135 mixed water samples in the runoff bucket were collected, and the sediment and nutrient contents in
136 the water samples were determined in the laboratory. Our dataset contained all rainfall events
137 recorded from 2004 to 2015 in the experimental sites Beijing plots. Owing to an instrument
138 malfunction, some of the rainfall field data were negative and blank, and the number of error data
139 was below 1%; these data were therefore excluded from analysis. ~~Missing data and faulty data, due~~
140 ~~to instrumentation problems, were eliminated prior to analysis.~~ A total of 997 natural rainfall events
141 were collected from runoff plots. The monitored variables runoff (RO: m³/km²), soil loss (SL: t/km²),
142 ~~and~~ soil nutrient loss (nitrogen (N: kg/km²); phosphorus (P: kg/km²), and chemical oxygen demand
143 (COD: kg/km²) were classified as were used as response variables. The plot types were as follows:
144 Grassland (GL); Farmland (FL); Horizontal bar (HB); Terranes (TR); Fish scale pit plot (SH).
145 Precipitation and environmental factors considerably influence hydrological responses, and thus,
146 the variables rainfall duration, maximum rainfall intensity over a 30-min period (Imax30), rainfall
147 depth, vegetation coverage, rainfall erosivity (R_e), and antecedent soil moisture content (ASMC)
148 were used to explain variation ~~infer~~ runoff, soil loss, and soil nutrient loss. ~~The plot types were as~~
149 ~~follows: Grassland (GL); Farmland (FL); Horizontal bar (HB); Terranes (TR); Fish scale pit plot~~
150 ~~(SH). We studied the influence of vegetation coverage on runoff, sediment, and nutrient loss. To~~
151 ~~effectively control variables, we only selected nine runoff plots in Danli, Beijing. The~~
152 ~~microtopography of these plots was flat, vegetation mainly consisted of a deciduous shrub (*Vitex*~~
153 ~~*negundo* L. var. *heterophylla* (Franch.) Rehd.) and white grass (*Pennisetum centrasiaticum* Tzvel.),~~
154 ~~and vegetation coverage ranged from 5 to 90%.~~

155 Owing to the lack of rainfall data, the regression equation of rainfall erosivity applicable to the
156 Beijing area was used:

$$R_e = 0.2463 \times P_r \times I_{max\ 30}$$

158 where R_e is rainfall erosivity, MJ·mm/(hm²·h); P_r is rainfall depth, mm; and $I_{max\ 30}$ is
159 maximum rainfall intensity over a 30-min period, mm/h.

160 Table 1 shows the mean characteristics of all groups. The K-mean clustering divides the dataset
161 into high-intensity events (n = 267), with an average value (I_{max30}) of 22.61 mm/h, ranging from
162 15 to 40 mm/h, and low-intensity events (n = 730), with an average value (I_{max30}) of 6.86 mm/h,
163 ranging from 0.1 to 14.7 mm/h. The high-intensity events produced a rainfall depth about twice as
164 high as the low-intensity events.

165 2.3 Statistical analysis

166 We used the structural equation model (SEM) to quantify the direct and indirect effects of
167 explanatory variables on response variables. Given the complex relationship between hydrological
168 and environmental factors and possible influence of plant coverage on runoff, soil loss, and nutrient
169 loss, we used SEM to test the correlation. ~~The response relationship between hydrology and~~
170 ~~environmental factors is complex, and SEM was used to determine, from a systematic perspective,~~
171 ~~which factors affected runoff, soil loss, and nutrient loss.~~ To improve data normality, data were
172 square root- and log-transformed. First, the correlation matrix between variables was calculated to
173 explore the correlation between explanatory variables and response variables. Subsequently, ~~an~~
174 priori hypothesis model was established according to previous knowledge (Fig. 2), and unsupervised
175 K-mean classification was employed to partition rainfall into high-intensity and low-intensity events,
176 based on the I_{max30} . There were 267 high-intensity rainfall events and 730 low-intensity rainfall

177 events. Individual path coefficients between variables were assessed by the multivariate Wald test
178 ($p < 0.05$), and non-significant paths and variables were removed from the model to reduce model
179 complexity. Modification indices can be used to increase the path in order to reduce the chi-square
180 value of the model and to obtain an acceptable model.

181 Six model fit indices were used to test the goodness of fit of model: (i) p value, (ii) χ^2/df : the
182 quotient of the Chi square and the degrees of freedom, (iii) RMSEA: root mean square error of
183 approximation, (iv) CFI: comparative fit index, (vi) NFI: the non-normed fit index, (vii) IFI:
184 incremental fit index. The value range of indicators with good model fitting is listed in Table 1.
185 Standardized path coefficients were estimated using generalized least squares analysis. The SEMs
186 were developed and tested with the SPSS AMOS 18 software (AMOS Development Corp., Mount
187 Pleasant, South Carolina, USA).

188 3. Results

189 3.1 Effects of vegetation cover on runoff, soil loss, and nutrient loss

190 Fig. 3 shows the runoff, soil loss, and soil nutrient loss in plots under different vegetation
191 coverage levels. With the increase in vegetation coverage, runoff and soil loss were significantly
192 reduced (Fig. 3a, b). When vegetation coverage was higher than 60%, runoff and sediment decreased
193 with increasing vegetation cover, but the difference was not significant. ~~vegetation had no~~
194 ~~significant effect on runoff and sediment reduction.~~ However, soil nutrient loss did not increase
195 significantly with increasing vegetation coverage. At 90% vegetation coverage, soil P loss was
196 greater than at 60%. When vegetation coverage was below 30%, the difference in soil nutrient loss
197 among different vegetation cover levels was not significant. At a vegetation coverage level of 60%,
198 soil N and P losses were minimal (Fig. 3c).

199 3.2 Soil nutrient loss characteristics under different rainfall intensities

200 ~~Figure Fig.~~ 4 shows the effect of soil management on soil nutrient loss under different rainfall
201 patterns. Significant differences were observed for soil nutrient loss between high-intensity and low-
202 intensity rainfall events. Under all management measures, soil nutrient loss at high-intensity rainfall
203 events was generally higher than at low-intensity rainfall events ($p < 0.05$). Regarding the different
204 management measures, soil nutrient loss followed the order $FL > TR > GL > HB > SH$. The
205 reduction rates of soil P loss caused by low-intensity rainfall under different land management
206 measures were as follows: $SH (83.82\%) > HB (81.34\%) > TR (65.12\%) > FL (57.79\%) > GL$
207 (23.19%) . The reduction rates of soil N loss caused by low-intensity rainfall events were as follows:
208 $TR (79.53\%) > FL (57.79\%) > HB (53.18\%) > SH (51.77\%) > GL (47.07\%)$. The COD reduction
209 rate followed the order $TR (78.67\%) > SH (70.41\%) > HB (68.47\%) > FL (62.25\%) > GL (50.49\%)$.

210 3.3 SEM of high-intensity and low-intensity rainfall events

211 The high-intensity and low-intensity rainfall structural equation model is presented in ~~Figure~~
212 ~~Fig.~~ 5. The final models showed good fit, with CFI, NFI, and IFI over 0.9 and $p > 0.05$ (Table 2). In
213 the low-intensity model, 29 and ~~5415~~% of variance in runoff and soil loss, respectively, were
214 explained (Fig. 5a). Rainfall duration had the strongest influence on rainfall depth ~~_in both models~~
215 (path coefficient = 0.52), while rainfall depth had a strong effect on runoff (path coefficient =
216 ~~0.4544~~). Rainfall duration had a direct negative effect on RO (path coefficient = ~~-0.1716~~) and an
217 indirect positive effect on RO because of its positive causal effect on rainfall depth (path coefficient
218 = 0.52). I_{max30} had a direct (~~0.2122~~) and indirect (0.45) positive effect on RO and a ~~strong~~ direct
219 effect on SL (path coefficient = ~~0.6506~~), ~~followed by I_{max30} (path coefficient = 0.12)~~. Rainfall
220 duration and vegetation coverage had a direct negative influence on soil loss (path coefficient = -

221 0.14–26 and -0.132). Rainfall erosivity had a strong direct positive effect on SL (path
222 coefficient=0.51).

223 For high-intensity rainfall events, there were no effects of vegetation and ASMC on runoff and
224 soil erosion (Fig.5b), most likely because the effect of these factors is masked by the intensity of
225 rainfall. Environmental factors, vegetation coverage, and antecedent soil moisture content were not
226 related with runoff and soil loss in high-intensity rainfall events and Therefore, they were therefore
227 removed from the model to improve the fit. In the high-intensity rainfall model, 3223 and 463% of
228 variance in runoff and soil loss, respectively, were explained (Fig. 5b). At such events, the same
229 relationship between RO and SL was found, and the path coefficient increased from 0.65 to 0.74.

230 Neither rainfall duration nor I_{max30} had a significant causal effect on soil loss.– The variation in
231 runoff and soil loss was 32 and 3%, respectively, and R_e had a direct positive effect on SL (path
232 coefficient =0.25). Compared with low-intensity rainfall events (path coefficient=0.22), the I_{max}
233 30 of high-intensity rainfall events had a greater influence on R_e (path coefficient=0.43).

234 3.4 Relationship between runoff, soil loss, and soil nutrient loss.

235 We found low to high correlations between response variables and explanatory variables (Table
236 4). The largest correlation coefficients were observed between RO and N and COD as well as
237 between N and COD. I_{max30} and rainfall depth had positive effects on runoff, soil loss, and soil
238 nutrient loss. However, ASMC and vegetation coverage were negatively correlated with RO, SL,
239 and nutrient loss, while I_{max30} and RO and soil nutrient loss showed moderate correlations (R =
240 0.27-0.35). Moderate correlations (R = 0.31 and 0.33) were also observed between depth and
241 nutrient loss. The SL was only slightly significantly correlated with RO and soil nutrient loss (R =
242 0.11-0.19, p <0.01), while ASMC was negatively and significantly correlated with N and COD loss

243 (R = 0.16 and 0.15, $p < 0.01$). In terms of explanatory variables, ~~Imax30Re~~ was significantly
244 correlated with SL and soil nutrient loss (R = ~~0.114-0.4390-18~~, $p < 0.01$), indicating that ~~Imax30Re~~
245 considerably contributed to soil erosion and nutrient loss. This is consistent with the results of
246 Napoli et al. (2017). In addition to extreme precipitation events, high intensity precipitation events
247 also contributed significantly to the annual erosion rate (Ramos and Martínez-Casasnovas, 2009).

248 Nutrient loss increased linearly with runoff and soil loss after logarithmic transformation (Fig.
249 6). The correlation between soil nutrient loss and runoff ($R^2= 0.51-0.64$) was higher than that
250 between soil loss ($R^2= 0.42-0.48$). We used the stepwise multiple linear regression model to assess
251 the correlation between soil nutrient loss and explanatory variables (Table 3). For soil nutrient loss,
252 RO was considered the largest variable; the factors RO, ASMC, and SL had the greatest ability to
253 predict soil N loss and explained 63.2% of the variability.

254 3.5 Soil nutrient loss SEM model

255 The revised SEM describes the effects of rainfall and environments factors on soil nutrient loss
256 (Fig. 7). Similar relationships among response variables and explanatory variables were found for
257 soil N, P, and COD loss. Among all explanatory variables, rainfall factors had the strongest direct
258 influence on soil nutrient loss. While Imax30 had a direct positive effect on SL, it had an indirect
259 positive effect on soil nutrient loss because SL had a direct positive influence on soil nutrient loss
260 Moreover, environmental factors had a moderate influence on soil nutrient loss. Of these, runoff had
261 the strongest influence on SL and nutrient loss. The path coefficients (~~0.5250-0.6264~~) indicate that
262 runoff was the most important driving force of soil nutrient loss. In addition to soil N loss in the
263 SEM model, rainfall duration only slightly negatively influenced soil P and COD loss (path
264 coefficient = ~~0.40-11~~ and ~~0.0405~~). The variance explained for soil P loss was ~~5455~~%, while it was

265 slightly lower for soil N (~~6463~~%) and COD (~~6567~~%) loss. Vegetation coverage directly negatively
266 affected SL (path coefficient = -0.11). Re directly positive affected soil nutrient loss (path
267 coefficient=0.08-0.1).

268 The direct, indirect, and total effects of environmental factors, precipitation, and hydrological
269 factors on soil nutrient loss are shown in ~~Figure-Fig.~~ 8. Soil nutrient loss was directly affected by
270 RO (~~7856-8474~~%), followed by SL (~~1916-3223~~%). However, I_{max30} and rainfall depth had the
271 largest indirect effects on soil nutrient loss, ranging from ~~3847-5650~~% and from ~~1731-4634~~%,
272 respectively. Rainfall duration had a direct negative effect on soil nutrient loss (6-~~1612~~%). Overall,
273 the factors positively impacting soil nutrient loss followed the order RO (~~4435-4838~~%), I_{max30}
274 (~~1827-29~~%) and depth (~~2017-2719~~%), and SL (~~107-1411~~%).

275 4. Discussion

276 4.2-1 Rainfall intensity

277 Precipitation is the main factor driving runoff and soil loss. Soil erosion is not only driven by
278 extreme precipitation, but also by short precipitation events with low rainfall intensity (Ramos et
279 al., & Martínez-Casasnovas, 2009). Under natural conditions, rainfall events show a skewed
280 distribution (skewness=2.79). Although strong storm events account for a small percentage of all
281 precipitation events, they exert most of the erosion throughout the year (Ramos et al. & MartíNez-
282 Casasnovas, 2004; Ziadat & Taimeh, 2013). In high-intensity rainfall events, ~~there~~ was no
283 negative correlation between I_{max30} and rainfall duration (Fig. 5b). Natural rain patterns are mostly
284 short duration of high intensity rainfall and long duration of low intensity rainfall. ~~short high-~~
285 ~~intensity events and long low intensity events.~~ In this study, high-intensity rainfall events, classified
286 by K-means clustering, accounted for 26.8% of all precipitation events. In low-intensity rainfall

287 events, vegetation coverage negatively affected soil loss (Fig. 5a). Nevertheless, the negative
288 relationship between vegetation cover and soil loss disappeared with high-intensity rainfall,
289 suggesting that the effect of the vegetation cover on soil loss could be overridden by rainfall intensity.
290 In high-intensity rainfall, I_{max30} had an indirect effect on soil loss, while in low-intensity events,
291 this effect was direct (Fig. 5). This phenomenon was consistent with previous results (Rodríguez et
292 al., ~~Caballero, Cantón, Lazaro, & Solé Benet~~, 2014). The I_{max30} directly affected soil loss in low-
293 intensity rainfall events, which was not the case in high-intensity rainfall events. One possible
294 reason for this interesting phenomenon is that intense rainfall can quickly form a thin film water
295 film, preventing the raindrops from hitting the ground directly. In low-intensity rainfall events,
296 raindrops hit the surface directly and mix the disturbed soil particles with runoff (Wang et al., ~~B.~~
297 ~~Wang, Steiner, Zheng, & Gowda~~, 2017).

298 There are two mechanisms of runoff production in ~~arid and~~ semi-arid and semi-humid areas:
299 surface saturation and infiltration excess, which do not occur independently. Previous studies have
300 shown that the production of rainfall depth and rainfall intensity is well correlated with runoff (~~A. G.~~
301 ~~Mayor et al.~~, ~~Bautista, & Bellot~~, 2011; ~~A. G.~~ Mayor et al., ~~Bautista, Llovet, & Bellot~~, 2007), mainly
302 because rainfall depth can well predict runoff in ~~arid and~~ semi-arid and semi-humid areas, while
303 rainfall intensity adequately predicts runoff in humid areas. According to the structural equation
304 model, runoff was directly affected by both rainfall depth and intensity, indicating that the runoff
305 mechanism is the result of surface saturation and infiltration excess. Compared with low-intensity
306 rainfall, the path coefficient of rainfall intensity on runoff in high-intensity rainfall events increases,
307 while the path coefficient of rainfall depth on runoff decreases (Fig. 5), indicating that the dominant
308 role of infiltration excess was greater under high-intensity rainfall events (Rodríguez-Caballero et

309 al., 2014).

310 4.1.2 Vegetation coverage

311 Based on our results, runoff and sediment losses significantly decreased with increasing
312 vegetation coverage (Fig. 3). Regarding soil nutrient loss, the influence of vegetation coverage
313 between 5 and 30% on soil nutrient loss was not significant. There was no significant difference in
314 soil P loss for vegetation cover levels between 20 and 90%. When vegetation cover was 60%, soil
315 N and P losses were lowest (Fig. 3). Vegetation coverage has a nonlinear threshold effect on soil
316 erosion (Jiang et al., 2019). Previous studies have given different thresholds for the effects of
317 vegetation on sediment reduction, which are related to local climatic conditions (Martínez-Zavala
318 et al., 2008; Moreno-de Las Heras et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019;). Liu et al. (2018)
319 divided the vegetation coverage threshold into two parts; when vegetation coverage reaches a low
320 threshold (30%), vegetation can effectively reduce soil and water loss, and when it reaches a high
321 threshold (50%-60%), vegetation increases soil erosion. This is consistent with the results of this
322 study. Most likely, this is because withWith increasing vegetation coverage, the water retention
323 ability of the root system increases. However, with increasing levels of vegetation litter, soil nutrient
324 levels with also greatly increase (Brazier, Turnbull, Wainwright, & Bol, 2014). At the same time,
325 the increased root system improves the physical and chemical properties of the surrounding soil
326 (Gao et al., 2009). Vegetation type can affect soil nutrient loss in the basin (Hervé-Fernandez et al.,
327 Oyarzún, & Woelfl, 2016). Turnbull et al. (2011) studied the loss and redistribution of soil N and P
328 caused by runoff in the process of grassland degradation to shrub land and found that in areas
329 dominated by shrubs, N losses were considerably higher than in grass areas. Also, runoff levels
330 decreased with increasing vegetation cover. However, Michaelides et al. (2009) found that the runoff

331 did not seem to change significantly when the vegetation changed to shrub-dominated on the plot
332 scale, but due to the differences in slope and soil type, erosion patterns may vary. ~~previous studies~~
333 ~~have found that runoff did not change significantly with vegetation type (Michaelides, Lister,~~
334 ~~Wainwright, & Parsons, 2009).~~

335 Vegetation plays an important role in the vertical water balance of precipitation, and ~~Vegetation~~
336 ~~is the main factor affecting runoff and erosion (Liu et al., 2016), and~~ a negative effect of vegetation
337 cover on soil erosion was found in the structural equation model. Vegetation consumes soil moisture
338 through evapotranspiration, especially during the growing season (Rungee et al., 2019; Nazarbakhsh
339 et al., 2020). On the one hand, the canopy can intercept rainfall and reduce the impact of raindrops
340 on the ground (Ghimire et al., 2012), while on the other hand, the large pores formed by the roots
341 can also increase infiltration and reduce runoff and soil loss (Kurothe et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016).

342 Previous studies have found that soil erosion is more sensitive to changes in vegetation than runoff
343 (El Kateb et al., Zhang, Zhang, & Mosandl, 2013; M.A.Nearing et al., 2005). The threshold of
344 rainfall runoff was positively correlated with vegetation coverage. In a previous study, when
345 vegetation cover exceeded 65%, runoff reduction was significantly improved ~~When the vegetation~~
346 ~~cover is higher than 65%, runoff is almost negligible~~ (Descheemaeker et al., 2006). A high
347 vegetation coverage leads to the loss of rainfall and the reduction of kinetic energy, which has a
348 negative effect on soil erosion.

349 4.3 Relationship between runoff, soil loss, and soil nutrient loss

350 In this study, soil nutrient loss was more correlated with runoff than soil erosion (Fig. 6).
351 Previous studies have shown that soil erodibility significantly affects sediment-related nutrient loss
352 and presents a positive logarithmic relationship (Wang et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2018). Based on a

353 previous study, sediment-associated nutrient loss accounts for 77% of the total soil nutrient loss
354 (Cheng et al., 2018). Frequent low-intensity rainfall, which carries nutrient-rich soil particles, poses
355 a greater threat to soil nutrient loss (Norton ~~et al., Sander, & White~~, 2007; Girmay et al., 2009). In
356 addition, erosion-related nutrient loss is also related to slope, soil moisture content, rainfall intensity,
357 vegetation coverage, and land use patterns (Girmay et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2011; Xing et al., 2016;
358 Cheng et al., 2018). In our study, the stepwise multiple linear regression equation shows that runoff
359 was the important predictor of soil nutrient loss, explaining 35.5, 61.9, and 56.4% of soil P, N, and
360 COD loss, respectively (Table 3). The SEM results of direct effects were similar to those of the
361 stepwise multiple linear models. After adding other factors, the predictive power of the equation
362 was slightly improved (Table 3). A study by Girmay et al. (2009) found that the prediction ability
363 of the model can be improved by 16% with the addition of the vegetation cover (Girmay ~~et al.,~~
364 ~~Singh, Nyssen, & Borrosen~~, 2009). Compared with rainfall, plot variables account for poor
365 hydrological variability, and such poor explanation can be attributed to several factors: (1) The
366 vegetation and topographic conditions of plots are single; (2) the influence factors are not all
367 included, such as slope, litter, and biological soil crusts. The multiple linear regression equation
368 shows that antecedent soil water content had negative effects on soil N and COD loss (Table 3),
369 most likely because nitrogen and phosphorus show different forms during runoff erosion. In general,
370 phosphorus tends to adhere to soil particles and is lost with soil erosion, while most nitrogen is
371 soluble and moves with runoff (Lu et al., Yihe, Bojie, Liding, Guohua, & Wei, 2016).

372 4.4 Direct and indirect effects of explanatory factors on response variables

373 Antecedent soil water content is closely related to runoff mechanisms. In ~~arid and~~ semi-arid
374 and semi-humid areas, ~~rain~~ rainfall reaching the surface mainly forms runoff by surface saturation.

375 However, in humid areas, infiltration excess is the dominant runoff mechanism. In the structural
376 equation model, antecedent soil water content had a negative effect (Fig. 7). Soil erodibility is
377 closely related to soil type, soil structure, and soil moisture content. Cheng et al. (2018), studying
378 the effect of soil moisture content on erosion, found that soil loss increased with soil moisture
379 content in areas with a high-water content, but decreased in areas with a low content. The higher the
380 soil moisture content, the more conducive it is to the formation of surface runoff and soil nutrient
381 loss. When soil saturation leads to surface runoff, the protective effect of runoff will weaken the
382 splash of raindrops, and the stability of soil aggregates will change, making soil particles more easily
383 separated by runoff (Michaelides et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2018; Neris et al., 2013). ~~When soil is~~
384 ~~saturated, soil particles are more easily separated by runoff (Chen et al., 2012; Hahn, Prasuhn,~~
385 ~~Stamm, & Schulin, 2012; Shigaki, Sharpley, & Prochnow, 2007).~~

386 We found negative effects of rainfall depth and runoff on soil moisture content. Higher amounts
387 of rain are lost in the form of runoff, and only a small amount seeps into the soil to replenish soil
388 moisture. Atmospheric evaporation and the time interval of the last precipitation are the main factors
389 determining the soil moisture content. Using the structural equation model, we did not find a direct
390 effect of soil moisture on soil nutrient loss. However, based on a series of simulated rainfall
391 experiments, Cheng et al. (2018) observed that the soil nutrient loss associated with runoff was
392 highest at a soil moisture content of 30%. Most likely, this is because soil surface nutrients quickly
393 dissolve and are lost with runoff when the soil moisture content is high. However, at low soil
394 moisture levels, a high soil infiltration rate leads to the delay in runoff formation time, and soil
395 nutrient loss is caused by rainwater infiltration into the soil (Cheng et al., 2018).

396 4.5 Scale effect and outlook

397 The scale effect represents an important issue in eco-hydrology. This study quantified the
398 interaction between the influencing factors and the contribution rate of erosion at the plot scale.
399 Owing to the single conditions of vegetation, soil, and topography, the results cannot be directly
400 extended to the watershed scale. The conclusions of this study are helpful to understand the
401 formation mechanism of soil erosion and nutrient loss at the slope scale. There is a threshold interval
402 between vegetation and soil loss, and vegetation coverage can be divided into three threshold areas:
403 lower threshold (0-20%), medium threshold (20-60%), and upper threshold (60-100%). Therefore,
404 a vegetation coverage of 20% can be defined as an erosion warning line, and vegetation should be
405 mainly restored manually. When the vegetation coverage is more than 60%, natural restoration is
406 recommended as the main vegetation restoration pathway. This study provides a restoration strategy
407 for vegetation cover of soil erosion and nutrient loss at the slope scale in the subhumid climate
408 region of northern China, providing a scientific basis for decision makers.

409 5. Conclusions

410 We systematically analyzed the interactive effects of natural rainfall and environmental factors
411 on runoff, soil, and nutrient loss at the plot scale. Soil erosion is significantly reduced when
412 vegetation coverage reaches 20 to 60%. At levels below 30%, the difference in soil nutrient loss
413 under different vegetation cover levels is not significant. When vegetation cover is 60%, N and P
414 losses are minimal. Irrespective of the land use type, soil nutrient loss at high-intensity rainfall
415 events was higher than at low-intensity rainfall events ($p < 0.05$). The structural equation model can
416 reveal more information on the effects of rainfall characteristics and environmental factors on
417 hydrological responses. Rainfall duration is still the key factor affecting rain accumulation. In high-
418 intensity rainfall events, we found no causal relationship between vegetation cover, antecedent soil

419 moisture content, and hydrological responses. After logarithmic transformation, soil nutrient loss
420 was significantly linearly correlated with runoff and soil loss, and runoff was the most important
421 predictor of soil nutrient loss. In the structural equation model of soil nutrient loss, vegetation cover
422 and soil moisture content negatively affected soil loss. The variance explained for soil P, N, and
423 COD was 5455, 6463, and 6567%, respectively. We established the relationship structure of the
424 direct and indirect effects of rainfall characteristics and environmental factors on soil nutrient loss
425 in runoff plots. Our study provides a basis for a deeper understanding of the underlying mechanisms
426 of soil loss and non-point source pollution. These direct and indirect effects require further studies
427 determining the involved underlying processes, which play a crucial role in the optimization of soil
428 erosion and nutrient loss management strategies.

429

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436

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439

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